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REVIEW OF NEW BOOKS.

THE PROPHECY OF DANTE.

A Poem, by Lord Byron.

"Tis the sunset of life gives me mystical lore,
And coming events cast their shadows before."
CAMPBELL.

Philadelphia, 12mo. 1821.

Of this short poem we do not intend to trouble our readers with a long criticism. The name of the author, and the nature of the subject, form a sufficient recommendation of it to the public favour, and it will probably be in the hands of many before this number of our journal. For those who may not have had an opportunity of seeing the poem, we select some of the principal passages that have struck us on a hasty perusal.

The causes which induced the composition are explained in the preface.

In the course of a visit to the city of Ravenna in the summer of 1819, it was suggested to the author that having composed something on the subject of Tasso's confinement, he should do the same on Dante's exile—the tomb of the poet forming one of the principal objects of interest in that city, both to the native and to the stranger.

"On this hint I spake," and the result has been the following four canto's, in terza rima, now offered to the reader. If they are understood and approved, it is my purpose to continue the poem in various other cantos to its natural conclusion in the present age. The reader is requested to suppose that Dante addresses him in the interval between the conclusion of the *Divina Commedia* and his death, and shortly before the latter event, foretelling the fortunes of Italy in general in the ensuing centuries. In adopting this plan I have had in my mind the *Cassandra Lycophron*, and the *Prophecy of Nereus* by Horace, as well as the *Prophecies of Holy Writ*. The measure adopted is the *terza rima* of Dante, which I am not aware to have seen hitherto tried in our language; except it may be by Mr. Hayley, of whose translation I never saw but one extract, quoted in the notes to *Caliph Vathek*; so that—if I do not err—this poem may be considered as a metrical experiment.

The cantos are short, and about the same length of those of the poet whose name I have borrowed, and most probably taken in vain.

Amongst the inconveniences of authors in the present day, it is difficult for any who have a name, good or bad, to escape translation. I have had the fortune to see the fourth canto of *Childe Harold* translated into Italian *versi sciolti*—that is, a poem written in the *Spenserian stanza* into *blank verse*, without regard to the natural divisions of the stanza, or of the sense. If the present poem, being on a national topic, should chance to undergo the same fate, I would request the Italian reader to remember that when I have failed in the imitation of his great "*Padre Alighier*," I have failed in imitating that which all study and few understand, since to this very day it is not yet settled what was the meaning of the allegory in the first canto of the *Inferno*, unless count Marchetti's ingenious and probable conjecture may be considered as having decided the question.

He may also pardon my failure the more, as I am not quite sure that he would be pleased with my success, since the Italians, with a pardonable nationality, are particularly jealous of all that is left them as a nation—their literature; and in the present bitterness of the classic and romantic war, are but ill disposed to permit a foreigner even to approve or imitate them without finding some fault with his ultramontane presumption. I can easily enter into all this, knowing what would be thought in England of an Italian imitator of Milton, or if a translation of Monti, or Pindemonte, or Arici, should be held up to the rising generation as a model for their future poetical essays. But I perceive that I am deviating into an address to the Italian reader, when my business is with the English one, and be they few or many, I must take my leave of both.

The first canto opens thus:

Once more in man's frail world! which I
had left
So long that 'twas forgotten; and I feel
The weight of clay again,—too soon
bereft
Of the immortal vision which could heal
My earthly sorrows, and to God's own
skies
Lift me from that deep gulph without
repeat,
Where late my ears rang with the damna-
ble cries

Of souls in hopeless bale; and from that
place
Of lesser torment, whence men may
arise

Pure from the fire to join the angelic race;
Midst whom my own bright Beatrice
blest'd

My spirit with her light; and to the base
Of the Eternal Triad! first, last, best,
Mysterious, three, sole, infinite, great
God!

Soul universal! led the mortal guest,
Unblasted by the glory, though he trod
From star to star to reach the almighty
throne.

Oh Beatrice! whose sweet limbs the
sod

So long hath prest, and the cold marble
stone,

Thou sole pure seraph of my earliest
love,

Love so ineffable and so alone,
That nought on earth could more my bos-
som move,

And meeting thee in heaven was but
to meet

That without which my soul, like the
arkless dove,

Had wandered still in search of, nor her
feet

Relieved her wing till found; without
thy light

My Paradise had still been incomplete.
Since my tenth sun gave summer to my
sight

Thou wert my life, the essence of my
thought,

Loved ere I knew the name of love,
and bright

Still in these dim old eyes, now over-
wrought

With the world's war, and years, and
banishment,

And tears for thee, by other woes un-
taught;

For mine is not a nature to be bent

By tyrannous faction, and the brawl-
ing crowd;

And though the long, long conflict hath
been spent

In vain, and never more, save when the
cloud

Which overhangs the Apennine, my
mind's eye

Pierces to fancy Florence, once so
proud

Of me, can I return, though but to die,
Unto my native soil, they have not yet

Quench'd the old exile's spirit, stern
and high.

But the sun, though not overcast, must
set.

And the night cometh; I am old in days,
And deeds, and contemplation, and have met
Destruction face to face in all his ways.
The world hath left me, what it found me, pure,
And if I have not gather'd yet its praise,
I sought it not by any baser lure;
Man wrongs, and Time avenges, and my name
May form a monument not all obscure,
Though such was not my ambition's end or aim,
To add to the vain-glorious list of those
Who dabble in the pettiness of fame,
And make men's fickle breath the wind that blows
Their sail, and deem it glory to be class'd
With conquerors, and virtue's other foes,
In bloody chronicles of ages past.
I would have had my Florence great and free:
Oh Florence! Florence! unto me thou wast
Like that Jerusalem which the Almighty He
Wept over, 'but thou wouldst not;' as the bird
Gathers its young, I would have gather'd thee
Beneath a parent pinion, hadst thou heard
My voice; but as the adder, deaf and fierce,
Against the breast that cherish'd thee was stirr'd
Thy venom, and my state thou didst amerce,
And doom this body forfeit to the fire.
Alas! how bitter is his country's curse
To him who for that country would expire,
But did not merit to expire by her,
And loves her, loves her even in her ire.
The day may come when she will cease to err,
The day may come she would be proud to have
The dust she dooms to scatter, and transfer
Of him, whom she denied a home, the grave.
But this shall not be granted; let my dust
Lie where it falls; nor shall the soil
Me breathe, but in her sudden fury thrust
Me forth to breathe elsewhere, so reassume
My indignant bones, because her angry gust
Forsooth is over, and repeal'd her doom;
No,—she denied me what was mine—my roof,
And shall not have what is not hers—my tomb.
Too long her armed wrath hath kept aloof

The breast which would have bled for her, the heart
That beat, the mind that was temptation proof,
The man who fought, toil'd, travell'd, and each part
Of a true citizen fulfill'd, and saw
For his reward the Guelph's ascendant art
Pass his destruction even into a law.
These things are not made for forgetfulness,
Florence shall be forgotten first; too raw
The wound, too deep the wrong, and the distress
Of such endurance too prolong'd to make
My pardon greater, her injustice less,
Though late repented; yet—yet for her sake
I feel some sonder yearnings, and for thine,
My own Beatrice, I would hardly take
Vengeance upon the land which once was mine,
And still is hallow'd by thy dust's return,
Which would protect the murderess like a shrine,
And save ten thousand foes by thy sole urn.
We give the whole of the second canto, with its fine lamentation over the misfortunes of Italy.
The Spirit of the fervent days of Old,
When words were things that came to pass, and thought
Flash'd o'er the future, bidding men behold
Their children's children's doom already brought
Forth from the abyss of time which is to be,
The chaos of events, where lie half-wrought
Shapes that must undergo mortality;
What the great Seers of Israel wore within,
That spirit was on them and is on me,
And if Cassandra-like, amidst the din
Of conflict none will hear, or hearing heed
This voice from out the Wilderness, the sin
Be theirs, and my own feelings be my need,
The only guerdon I have ever known.
Hast thou not bled? and hast thou still to bleed,
Italy? Ah! to me such thing, foreshown
With dim sepulchral light, bid me forget
In thine irreparable wrongs my own:
We can have but one country, and even yet
Thou'rt mine—my bones shall be within thy breast,
My soul within thy language, which once set
With our old Roman sway in the wide west;

But I will make another tongue arise
As lofty and more sweet, in which express
The hero's ardour, or the lover's sighs,
Shall find alike such sounds for every theme
That every word as brilliant as thy skies,
Shall realize a poet's proudest dream,
And make thee Europe's nightingale of song;
So that all present speech to thine shall seem
The note of meaner birds, and every tongue
Confess its barbarism when compared with thine.
This shalt thou owe to him thou didst so wrong,
Thy Tuscan Bard, the banish'd Ghibelline.
Woe! woe! the veil of coming centuries
Is rent,—a thousand years which yet supine
Lie like the ocean waves ere winds arise,
Heaving in dark and sullen undulation,
Float from eternity into these eyes;
The storms yet sleep, the clouds still keep their station,
The unborn earthquake yet is in the womb,
The bloody chaos yet expects creation,
But all things are disposing for thy doom;
The elements await but for the word,
"Let there be darkness!" and thou grow'st a tomb!
Yes! thou, so beautiful, shall feel the sword,
Thou, Italy! so fair that Paradise,
Revived in thee, blooms forth to man restored:
Ah! must the sons of Adam loose it twice?
Thou, Italy! whose ever golden fields,
Plough'd by the sunbeams solely, would suffice
For the world's granary; thou whose sky
heaven gilds
With brighter stars, and robes with deeper blue;
Thou, in whose pleasant places Summer builds
Her palace, in whose cradle Empire grew,
And form'd the Eternal City's ornaments
From spoils of kings whom freemen overthrew;
Birthplace of heroes, sanctuary of saints,
Where earthly first, then heavenly glory made
Her home; thou, all which fondest fancy paints,
And finds her prior vision but portray'd
In feeble colours, when the eye—from the Alp
Of horrid snow, and rock, and shaggy shade
Of desert-loving pine, whose emerald scalp
Nods to the storm—dilates and dotes o'er thee,
And wistfully implores, as 'twere for help

To see thy sunny fields, my Italy.
 Nearer and nearer yet, and dearer still
 The more approach'd, and dearest
 were they free,
 Thou—Thou must wither to each ty-
 rant's will:
 The Goth hath been,—the German,
 Frank, and Hun
 Are yet to come,—and on the imperi-
 al hill
 Ruin, already proud of the deeds done
 By the old barbarians, there awaits
 the new,
 Throned on the Palatine, while lost
 and won
 Rome at her feet lies bleeding, and the hue
 Of human sacrifice and Roman slaugh-
 ter
 Troubles the clotted air, of late so
 blue,
 And deepens into red the saffron water
 Of Tiber, thick with dead; the help-
 less priest,
 And still more helpless nor less holy
 daughter,
 Vow'd to their God, have shrieking fled,
 and ceased
 Their ministry: the nations take their
 prey,
 Iberian, Almain, Lombard, and the
 beast
 And bird, wolf, vulture, more humane
 than they
 Are; these but gorge the flesh and lap
 the gore
 Of the departed, and then go their way.
 But those, the human savages, explore
 All paths of torture, and insatiate yet,
 With Ugolino hunger prowls for more.
 Nine moons shall rise o'er scenes like
 this and set;
 The chiefless army of the dead, which
 late
 Beneath the traitor Prince's banner
 met,
 Hath left its leader's ashes at the gate;
 Had but the royal Rebel lived, per-
 chance
 Thou hadst been spared, but his in-
 volved thy fate.
 Oh! Rome, the spoiler or the spoil of
 France,
 From Brennus to the Bourbon, never
 never
 Shall foreign standard to thy walls ad-
 vance
 But Tiber shall become a mournful river.
 Oh! when the strangers pass the Alps
 and Po,
 Crush them, ye rocks! floods, whelm
 them, and for ever!
 Why sleep the Idle avalanches so,
 To topple on the lonely pilgrim's head?
 Why doth Eridanus but overflow
 The peasant's harvest from his turbid bed?
 Were not each barbarous horde a no-
 bler prey?
 Over Cambyse's host the desert spread
 Her sandy ocean, and the sea waves'
 sway
 Roll'd over Pharaoh and his thou-
 sands,—why,

Mountains and waters, do ye not as
 they?
 And you, ye men! Romans who dare not
 die,
 Sons of the conquerors who overthrew
 Those who overthrew proud Xerxes,
 where yet lie
 The dead whose tomb Oblivion never
 knew,
 Are the Alps weaker than Thermopylae?
 Their passes more alluring to the view
 Of an invader? is it they, or ye,
 That to each host the mountain-gate
 unbar,
 And leave the march in peace, the
 passage free?
 Why, Nature's self detains the victor's
 car
 And makes your land impregnable, if
 earth
 Could be so; but alone she will not war,
 Yet aids the warrior worthy of his birth.
 In a soil where the mothers bring forth
 men:
 Not so with those whose souls are little
 worth;
 For them no fortress can avail,—the den
 Of the poor reptile which preserves its
 sting
 Is more secure than walls of adamant,
 when
 The hearts of those within are quivering.
 Are ye not brave? Yes, yet the Auso-
 nian soil
 Hath hearts, and hands, and arms, and
 hosts to bring
 Against Oppression; but how vain the
 toil,
 While still Division sows the seeds of
 woe
 And weakness, till the stranger reaps
 the spoil.
 Oh! my own beauteous land! so long laid
 low,
 So long the grave of thy own chil-
 dren's hopes,
 When there is but required a single
 blow
 To break the chain, yet—yet the Aven-
 ger stops,
 And Doubt and Discord step 'twixt
 thine and thee,
 And join their strength to that which
 with thee copes;
 What is there wanting then to set thee
 free,
 And show thy beauty in its fullest light?
 To make the Alps impassable; and we,
 Her sons, may do this with one deed—
 Unite!

ORIGINAL COMMUNICATION.

MEMOIR

ON

The Natural and Political History
 OF
 MOROCCO.

The empire of Morocco is divided
 from that of Algiers by the Malva,
 the largest and deepest river of this

country, emptying into the sea op-
 posite to the Spanish town of Al-
 miria: it is navigated by small ves-
 sels, and might with little difficulty
 be rendered open for ships of the
 largest size. From this frontier
 the empire extends along the Medi-
 terranean and the Atlantic to the
 sands of Nigritia, and into the in-
 terior as far as the Sahara. This
 composed formerly a small part of
 Cæsarian Mauritania and the whole
 of Tangitane Mauritania, and was
 subjected to the same revolutions
 with the rest of the north of Africa:
 by its last possessors it has been kept
 under agitations from which the
 other provinces were exempt.

The Arabs had scarcely establish-
 ed their dominion, when the too fa-
 mous count Julian, incensed against
 the Gothic king, then on the Spanish
 throne, invited these conquerors,
 every where attended by their for-
 tune, to be the ministers of his ven-
 geance. The restless spirit of these
 intrepid Asiatics prevented their
 refusing the offer; accustomed to
 every hardy enterprise, they passed
 the canal that divided them from
 the prey offered to their ambition,
 and their success exceeded even
 the expectations of their natural pre-
 sumption. In a short time, and with
 but little exertion, they became pos-
 sessors of one of the richest coun-
 tries of Europe. Separated now by
 the sea from the officers who had
 confided to them the expedition ter-
 minated with so much ease, and
 still more remote from the succes-
 sors of Mahomet, who from the ex-
 tremity of the east gave laws to the
 vast empires which the Arabs had
 acquired with so much glory; these
 hardy adventurers threw off at once
 the double yoke of the caliph and of
 his lieutenant. The consequences
 of this new operation in the consti-
 tution of the Musselmén were fatal.
 Revolt began in every part of the
 empire, and every chief aiming at
 independent sway, numerous small
 sovereignties sprung up, and by
 their weakness encouraged the
 Christians to leave the mountains
 of Asturia, where they had taken
 refuge; and the Arabs of Spain saw
 themselves reduced to the necessity
 of invoking the aid of their African
 brethren. These had also thrown
 off their allegiance to the common
 stock, and had on their part estab-
 lished many petty sovereignties;

but were able to furnish the requisite succour, as no enemy had yet excited, their fears: and although Portugal, at last delivered from the devastation and oppression of the Musselmén, was pouring her vengeance upon the shores whence her woes had proceeded, the Arab armies continued to pass the sea. The attacks of Portugal began in 1415 by the taking of Ceuta, and in 1508 the entire coast to Cape Bojador was under its dominion. The traffic, which every wave carried between the productions of Europe and of this part of Africa, scarcely repaid the expenses inseparable from a state of incessant war, and yielded but little profit to the coffers of the government or of the nation. Concluding that in the interior of the country greater advantages would be found, Sebastian undertook its conquest. This imprudent prince perished with his army in the plains of Alcaassar in 1519. Accident had at this epoch given to this country a firm and intelligent monarch of the dynasty of the Cherifs, who shortly before had possessed themselves of the throne, and have ever since retained it. The death of the virtuous Muley Moluc on the field of victory, again plunged his people into the calamities which had been suspended by a wise and just government. In the course of time, however, the four kingdoms of Fez, Talifet, Suz, and Morocco, after an obstinate and cruel separation, were again united under one head, and instead of four tyrants, the empire was under one, but one who united in himself every species of tyranny. From this centre of power emanate the rays which are consuming this fine but unhappy country; and a single despot holds in subjection a mass of nations of various origin. It has been supposed that the Breberi were the ancient inhabitants of this country, who fled before the Carthaginians, or Carthaginians who fled before the Romans; nor is this conjecture without probability, although unsupported by any contemporary historian. The authors of Greece and Italy could easily have been ignorant of the existence of an unhappy race who rested, and might well have rested, their hopes upon being unknown. Be this as it may; the Breberi occupied the habitable parts of Atlas from the frontiers of

Algiers to those of Tarudant, and extended considerably towards the Sahara. The Breberi must be distinguished into two distinct divisions, although both, perhaps, are of the same race. The first class comprises the Breberi properly so called, inhabitants of Atlas from Tremecen, to beyond the town of Morocco, where the name of Breberi is changed for that of Cheleu, under which is contained the second division. The provinces of Suz and Ocadnoun, as far as the deserts of Nigritia, are inhabited by the latter. Among these there are but few Arabs, and their language, which, according to the received opinion, was the ancient Punic, differs from that of the Breberi, whom, nevertheless, they are able to understand. Their manners and customs are also different, and the superstitions which they have in common, seem to be derived from Mahometanism, but badly understood by either: while some of them find their source in customs from time immemorial preserved by this people, but little addicted to novelty. The two divisions again consist of numerous tribes maintaining but little communication with each other. Their religion is a corruption of the Alcoran. They allow themselves some of the meats most strongly interdicted by it, and are the only Mahometans who submit to inoculation for the small-pox, whence may arise doubts as to the correctness of the received opinion that the small-pox prevailed in Africa prior to the establishment of the Arabs. They are of a copper colour, their hair is suffered to grow; and their only clothing consists of a long woollen tunic. The cultivation of the earth, the care of their flocks, and some of the ruder arts, engross altogether or partially the whole of these hordes; each is under a chief appointed in the country by the sovereign, and charged with the preservation of order, and with the payment of the tribute. Revenge is the reigning passion of this half savage race, and whenever two of the hordes are embroiled, the destruction of one of them is inevitable. Nor are their hatreds less implacable when confined to separate families. Neither mourning nor tears are shown for those who perish in prosecution of their public or indi-

vidual revenge. The government rates blood at nothing, and money at the highest estimation; nor has it attempted to restrain the profusion of life which results in a profit to the treasury; agreeably to the tenets of the Alcoran, where the heaviest crimes are expiated by a fine. The disgrace of punishment leaves no trace behind, and the son of him who has been condemned to every kind of degradation, is as near to the first dignities of the state as though his race had been unblemished. This mode of thinking, correct in itself, but unknown in Europe, necessarily exists in a country where the innocent and the guilty are alike subject to the sanguinary caprices of despotism. In the midst of the sandy hills which are the resort of the Breberi, villages have been formed and inhabited by the Breberi and Cheleu, where the wandering tribes procure articles in themselves of small value, but which their wandering life prevents their preparing for themselves.

Among these depots, Aitabel, Wednoun, Sehouira, Dannah, and Meshah, are the most known. Dera, on the the Sahara, is a refuge for those obnoxious to government or to individual violence. The chief here is a member of a family in which sanctity is reputed hereditary, and he thence receives the respect of the people, and the consideration of the sovereign. The same consideration is extended to all the tribes of the Breberi, and particularly to the Cheleu of the coast of Suz and of Cape Non, where the people roughly fed, born in a wild and burning climate, habituated to combat the lion and the tiger, and torn by intestine divisions, have acquired a ferocity that would not easily brook a servile dependence, while their avarice withholds the payment of tribute. Their chiefs, however, are occasionally sent with inconsiderable presents to the emperor: some of the tribes refuse even this. Their religion alone induces them to acknowledge a master, and the force of habit continues their submission. More than once experience has shown, that it was not for want of force that they belonged to others than their own chiefs, while the consciousness of what they may do, has often compelled, and still compels the superior au

thority to wink at enterprises which they daily undertake.

The Cheleu and Breberi form alliances only in their own tribes: their idiom, which, as already remarked, has been supposed the ancient Punic, is unknown to the rest of Africa. The Moors and Arabs have always been separate nations at Algiers, Tunis and Tripoli; but it is otherwise in Morocco. Probably the Arabs were there too few for their Spanish expedition, and for others which for two or three centuries constantly succeeded each other; and they were obliged to share with the Moors their depredations and their fame, and from their military resulted their civil amalgamation.— Their difference of habit and appearance was gradually effaced by this association, and the two nations became one, of which the greater part leads a wandering life, while the remainder is fixed in the towns. Societies, more or less numerous, are formed by those who have adopted the pastoral life: they live in tents, and each year change their dwelling, to rest their lands, or to seek elsewhere more abundant pastures. Both on the march and when stationary, their encampments are circular, with the flocks in the centre. An agent of the government presides over the camp, and is himself subject to their chief, and cannot be removed without his permission. Among the men husbandry is the only occupation, the coarsest and most humiliating toil devolves upon the women, who are considered as slaves. The children attend the flocks and receive some instruction, as to their religion, from a Talbe, who rarely knows any thing of the subject, and whose learning is bounded by committing the Alcoran to memory. The wants of such a people must be extremely limited, each family provides for itself, its husbandry supplies bread, the hair of their goats furnishes their tents, the wool of their sheep their cloathing, and the milk of their herds their ordinary nourishment. A general fair, established in each country, affords to every one the opportunity of buying or selling every day except Friday. Crouds of Charlatans and Buffoons resort hither, and the hope of amusement from the one, or of cure from the others, attracts more powerfully than the disposition or

the necessity of traffic. They who are drawn to the points of concentration in quest of gain, are forced to cease their journeys at sunset, and to defer their setting out until after sunrise, as during the night they might be plundered with impunity, although each tribe is responsible for theft in its territory during the day; and in addition is liable to a fine to the treasury. In a land where even the name of science is unknown, where no grade of nobility exists, where there is no sort of magistracy or representation, where fortunes are all precarious, and he who to-day is at the summit of advancement is to-morrow a slave, where talent and virtue are never rewarded or valued; in such a land, there can be no real difference between those imprisoned within walls and those who breathe the open air. That houses are more convenient than tents, that in food, raiment, and furniture, they are more comfortable, with the constant dread of being robbed of these faint enjoyments, is the only difference between the Arabs and Moors who dwell in towns, and those who wander through the country. A third class of the population is that of the Renegades sufficiently numerous and dwelling in cities. Some few, very few were Christians, most of them are Jews by origin, who, in the hope of a little more liberty, and in the prospect of gain, have changed the creed of their fathers for that of Mahomet. They are despised by the natives, who deem this race so infamous that on no occasion can they be induced to unite their blood. These apostates are therefore compelled to marry among themselves, and this necessity has so continued their characteristic features, that their origin is never mistaken. Yet more scorned than their quondam brethren, the Jews close the list of the miserable inhabitants of the empire of Morocco. Thus throughout the globe, some of this last people have been found. From the earliest ages they had multiplied to such a degree, that at their expulsion from Spain and Portugal, their number was 200,000; the tenth part now scarcely remains, the rest have perished in want, or have changed their religion, or by a concealment have escaped tyranny. As in Morocco this persecuted race are forbidden

productive possessions, they have devoted their portion of intelligence or activity to such occupations as will yield them support; most of the necessary arts, and nearly all those of address are centered among them. Spread through the towns, the country and the shores, they have managed to appropriate all the traffic with the interior, together with the greater part of the foreign trade of the country. They are the exclusive agents of the government in the customs and all money transactions, and not unfrequently in their negotiations: and the advantages, legitimate or not, which they receive from such various and lucrative employments, reconcile them to the outrages and vexations which are imposed upon them. The several nations among whom this country is divided, may form an aggregate of 10 millions of souls, including the tribes who pay no allegiance to the reigning emperor. This enumeration would seem limited, to those who consider the extent of the empire, but without exaggeration the whole of the soil is in a state of fallow, except a few leagues in the immediate vicinity of the towns; and what little cultivation is given to a country naturally the most fertile in the world, is without care, without skill, and without proper materials. The estimate of population for the purposes of public revenue continues too large. Formerly the only taxation was that of the tithes directed by the Koran, which is yet paid, and punctually carried to the capital of each province: but recently other taxes have been enforced, the coin has been alloyed, the customs increased, and the capitation of the Jews exceeds all bounds. A monopoly of tobacco exists, and nothing passes a river, or can enter or leave a town without being subjected to duties more or less burthensome; and as if this were not enough, fines and confiscations are daily imposed by the caprice of the despot; and every fortune, however acquired, is an offence to be expiated by the loss of wealth, and generally of liberty or life. Notwithstanding so many apparent sources of wealth, few monarchs are as limited in their revenue as the emperor of Morocco. For above a century no one of them has seen, that the discouragement of the people would recoil upon themselves,

until the present emperor Muley Soliman, who from humanity, or from a refinement of avarice, has felt the truth of this position. His predecessors have been obliged to have recourse to the vast treasures accumulated by their less oppressive ancestors; and all those who have had the opportunity of judging, believe that now very little remains. In deviating however so essentially from the course of their predecessors, the late emperors have yet conformed to the established usage of administering justice in person. This august function is performed on horseback in the open field; a canopy or parasol, more or less ornamented, defends them from the force of the sun; and often with their own sabre or carbine, they execute the sentence of death which they have pronounced. This however is generally left to the black slaves by whom they are escorted. No age or region has ever known more despotic sway—it is here limited by neither law, opinion, or even by religion, so powerful in its influence in the Musselman territories: consequently, terror attends every step of the sovereign; and the bravest dreads the despot, his satellites, and even his associate. Nor is life the only subject of anxiety, it extends to property—and this general terror ceases only at a distance from the tyrant. The provinces are committed to officers, who are to render to the treasury a sum proportioned to the extent of territory under their charge. These harpies were formerly screened from all punishment, and even from recall, as at their death the fruit of their plunder went into the hands of the prince, the heir apparent of all employed in the administration. This is also the rule of the present emperor, but his father, Sidi Mahomet, found this mode of awaiting the spoils of those whose wealth he coveted too tedious, and they were forced to resign their fortunes to him. In a country where no confidence exists between the governors and the governed, the regulation of the militia has of course undergone various modifications; for nearly a century it has been composed exclusively of slaves, to the number of 50,000 miserable blacks—since the death of Sidi Mahomet, however, this number has greatly decreased, in consequence of the

wars of Muley Eliazid and Muley Soliman his successors. Each soldier receives lodging, arms, cloathing, his horse, and occasionally money, and on return from an expedition a small portion of land, which he cultivates or farms out; cattle for his tillage are furnished to him at the proper season. Sometimes hordes of the Breberi and Arabs are enlisted, and look to the hope of pillage for their pay. The governors of the provinces are also obliged to supply, at their own expense, recruits in proportion to the extent and wealth of their departments. No foreign war, since the absurd expedition of Muley Eliazid against Ceuta, in 1789, has placed arms in the hands of the various forces, who have long been called together only to suppress revolt in the different provinces, excited by the many parties and their chiefs, who have finally been destroyed by Muley Soliman, or else in the object of forcing the payment of tribute from the rebellious hordes. The naval force is yet less formidable, and more disorganized than the army. It in fact consists of but three or four frigates given to Muley Soliman by Spain, and an considerable number of xebecs and galiots, constructed without skill, and miserably equipped—without admirals or officers. Favour appoints the commander, who receives from the treasury a pitiful outfit; upon which he engages his own lieutenants and sailors at such a price as he may determine with them. Their sustenance is of the most wretched kind; and in his injustice towards them he finds the emolument withheld from him by the government. This is the preposterous system at Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli.

(To be continued.)

ANALECTA.

Extracts from the article on Freedom of Commerce, in the Quarterly Review for April.

The principles of restriction, exclusion and encouragement occurred at periods of the earliest application of the mind to the means of advancing the public wealth, and have been the rule of conduct for governments for centuries past. They appear in the oldest enactments of the statute book, commencing with our first Edwards and

Henry; were long inculcated as incontrovertible, and at this day prevail in every stage of society:—in China and Turkey, in England, France, and the United States, the most ancient and the last instituted—under every form, the freest and the most arbitrary governments alike act upon the system.

This has been tenaciously adhered to in practice, though for more than half a century all writers upon commercial policy have held an opposite argument, every one, from the time of Quesnay and Smith, however differing on other points, agreeing in this one principle, that general freedom of trade is the surest and more rapid way to wealth. It is maintained that to force the consumer to pay dearer for home productions than he can purchase from abroad, is not to promote the national advantage, but the interest of the producer at the expense of that of the consumer. It is asserted, that the freest admission of foreign products and manufactures will best assist, in the early stages of society, the progress of agriculture, till the accumulation of capital necessarily raises manufactures, foreign commerce and navigation. In the advanced state, every individual, intent on the increase of his own advantage and fortunes, and left to the unrestrained pursuit of his interest, will follow it with most zeal and effect: and from prevalent private success results the general prosperity.

A main principle insisted upon by the advocates of freedom of commerce, is, that no industry or source of wealth is lost by the declension or disappearance of a home manufacture, in consequence of the opening of the country to the admission of a like foreign fabric possessing a superiority; because something must be given in payment for the new importation, and the labourers in the declining manufacture will transfer themselves to the production of this other object required to effect the exchange.

The truth of this position rests upon the power of the home manufacturer to find occupation in some other labour, which will afford the value wanted to give in exchange for the new foreign imports. We must retain yet in our possession a sufficient diversity of departments

of industry, or some of so much magnitude as to receive the labourers dislodged from their usual employment by the introduction of foreign commodities. It can hardly be expected that any material new opening for labour can at this day be discovered; those remaining departments of industry, therefore, must be productive of objects which will be received in other countries to an extent to pay for our new importations; and those increased in proportion to our transferred labour.

The restrictive system of these islands or the natural progress of industry securely followed, has raised up a great variety of manufactures. It is difficult to say how many of these might be affected by an open commercial intercourse with other countries; but assuming that the most obvious are silk, fine woollen, certain linens, lace, gloves, mirrors, &c. it is to be determined whether those branches in which we are yet unrivalled, cotton, hardware, common woollen, and others, would receive such increase by the necessity of paying for foreign importations, as to afford employment for the industrious classes, whose callings would be injured by their introduction. If by the free reception of foreign wrought silk, woollen and linen, labour to the value of ten millions be displaced from home manufactures, would the augmented demand for cottons and hardware, to pay for the foreign commodities, give an equally considerable new employment? If by the free importation of foreign grain, labour to the value of ten millions be disengaged from agriculture, would it find ready demand and wages in manufacturing or other industry to a like extent? If we assume the labour displaced in manufactures and agriculture at twenty millions, the capital disengaged by that amount of labour must be estimated to be near two hundred millions. We take these sums by way of illustration, without pretending to approximate to the probable fact: the carrying into effect of a perfectly free intercourse of commerce would unsettle and dislodge a far greater value of labour and capital. Every path of industry in this country is probably stocked with capital nearly adequate to reach the increase of production necessary to meet any

new demand; and the actual labour in most employments is capable of being rendered more productive without additional aid. Labour and capital have an elasticity, which, within certain bounds, adapt them to various degrees of production; and from their conjoint efforts any required increase is as often derived as from extraneous additions. The great capital and labour now in the cotton manufacture gradually sprung from its own resources, not from attraction from other employments.

The transition from one description of labour to another would not be easy. A man accustomed for a number of years to a particular kind of work cannot readily pass over to another altogether different. Persons, especially of the class of life of artisans and labourers, are slow to form and slow to change their habits; the skill which they tardily acquire, they tenaciously adhere to, and come with difficulty to learn any other. A farmer's labourer will not readily become a mechanic; a silk weaver be made a cutler; a lace-maker or glover be converted into a maker of woollens.

If we cannot sell we shall not produce, and we cannot sell abroad more than the countries to which we can have recourse will buy. Their powers of purchase are bounded, and cannot be enlarged with the facility often assumed in argument. Under the most favourable circumstances it can only be by a slow progression, and in many actual constitutions of society is scarce capable of any material augmentation. Agricultural countries are restricted in the means of purchase by the confined fertility of the earth, or the degrees of productiveness acquired. These rarely reach the boundaries fixed by nature, but more generally are subject to the extent of actual cultivation which results under the prevalent knowledge, local institutions, and laws. We must trade with the countries of the world as we find them, and with that portion of demand which they present;—we cannot count on the unlimited increase amongst them promised by our philosophers, until they themselves are agreed on the most efficacious method of such increase, and have made converts and procured the adoption of their system by all governments. Mean

while, in practice, it is found that carry what we will to Poland, and countries similarly constituted, the land proprietor seems almost the sole purchaser, with means little susceptible of increase, and habits often as unchangeable as those of an Indian chief: his labourers, transferable with the soil, are forbidden by the tenure of their existence from any endeavours to accumulate wealth. The African chief cannot be brought to any general application to matters of merchandize by the temptation of a somewhat greater offer of our commodities. It is well known that in the eastern despotisms, the entire surplus produce of the soil is engrossed by the state, while the mass of the population exists in slavery and indigence: the latter have nothing to offer for foreign effects, and the former find greater necessity of maintaining numerous dependants, than of pouring the revenue collected in their hands into channels to produce commercial relations. The South American mines are limited in their productiveness, and were the slaves that work them with their employers disposed to exchange their whole produce against our manufactures, would it supply us with a sufficiency of specie to provide for our consumption of silk, broad cloths, lace, gloves, linen, &c. &c., and which yet would be necessary, since our neighbours would not take from us our manufactures in exchange?

Were we to suppose Great Britain, France, or any other large country, effectually shut out from communication with any other parts of the world, the soil might support a larger population than at present, and labour exerted to its greatest extent might be productive of abundant wealth without any foreign commerce; while much of the produce of the labour, manufacturing and agricultural, might be appropriated by the government for objects of public revenue. Each country within itself might stand in a peculiarly artificial situation; and, with a large public revenue levied, prices be comparatively higher than amongst other nations. A free admission of cheaper foreign commodities must then loosen every internal trading connexion, and the fall of price essentially injure the productiveness of the former revenue.

This country is partly thus circumstanced; and China is, in many respects, yet more so.

After the provision of necessities, the disposable labour applied to superfluities is usually employed upon manufactures. This manual labour, with the skill belonging to it, is common to all countries, transferable, and daily migratory. The advocates of free trade often fall into an important error in their zealous exhortations to allow an unrestrained interchange of the productions in which each country excels. This, as far as belongs to natural objects, and especially the products of different climates, we hold to be unquestionably right. But they go farther, and join all manufactured articles. This country, amongst the endless variety of its commercial stores, numbers very few which can be called peculiar to the soil, or in which we have any natural advantage whatever over the greater part of the world. Our commerce is artificial, arising mainly from the application of labour and skill to raw materials, a talent acquirable by all men, and in all countries; and which has successively existed in a prominent degree in Italy, Holland, France, and other parts of Europe; and is in many respects possessed at this day in common by all. The slightest examination of the history of commerce shows how many manufactures, and also natural productions of homogeneous climates, have owed their introduction amongst a people to special encouragement, and have risen by protection till they flourished in self-supported excellence and extension. Because interference and encouragements may be carried to an extreme, are they, therefore, in all cases, impolitic and injurious? Are governments to be considered as having done every thing, when, in fact, they have done nothing what ever?

We incline to think, that while husbandry, manufactures and commerce possess an inherent source of life and motion, and a *vis medicatrix* to remedy many occurring evils, the wisdom of legislation may yet be necessary to create, advance, and preserve them, in many conditions of mankind. We do not believe that industry, left to itself, will, in all cases, take the best, the

surest, or nearest course to perfection, although we are disposed to confide in it, and allow much to its spontaneous action. The desire of man to better his condition, which is so particularly insisted on, does not appear always in a state of excitement. An external impulse must then be given. How often do states, midway in civilization and affluence, appear in a dormant and stationary situation? Who that has visited the provincial districts of this country but must have observed in some this moral excitement in great vigour, in others the faculties continuing dull and inert? M. Sismondi, one of the most zealous and competent supporters of free trade, states* of certain parts of France: 'on remarque que les paysans sont demeurés dans une profonde ignorance, attachés à leurs habitudes, à leurs routines agricoles, et incapables de suivre la marche de la civilisation du reste de la France.' What remedy does he suggest? One of interference, of force, or privilege, despairing of improvement till 'une autre classe de paysans, animés de plus d'espoir et éclairés de plus de lumières, se trouvera mêlée avec ces cultivateurs; et que ceux-ci verront enfin la possibilité d'un progrès devant eux, au lieu de regarder toujours en arrière.' A large and productive country, enjoying many advantages of climate, containing great and flourishing manufacturing districts, with the most various and extensive agricultural cultivation, without internal obstruction, is a world within itself, enjoying perfect freedom of commerce: yet in one, blessed with these favourable circumstances almost beyond any other on the globe, is there found, 'dans plusieurs provinces, une population stationnaire depuis quatre ou cinq siècles, fort en arrière de toute la nation, qui ne songe point à devenir plus riche, qui ne tente point de changer d'état, le fils exactement à la place où se trouvait son père;' and all this, as he remarks, 'dans un pays comme la France, où tout avance, où tout chemine avec activité.' Might not this country, on the withdrawing of all exclusions, restrictions, and prohibitions, come eventually to stand, with relation to the rest of the world, as 'les pro-

* Nouveaux Principes d'Economie Politique: livre iii. chap. v.

vinces au midi de la Loire' stand with relation to the rest of France?

Florence owed her splendour to the woollen manufacture, with which she supplied the world. Its prevalence in that city cannot perhaps be more forcibly shown, than by an incidental observation made by Machiavelli, in the narrative of his perambulation of the city at the period of the plague of 1527; the circumstance he mentions as, on that occasion, first occurring, and most powerfully striking him, was the stillness prevailing in place of the former sounds of the preparation of this manufacture. Could he revisit his native city, he would still find the same silence reigning, not proceeding from plague, nor yet from the diversion of the channel of the East India trade, nor yet from cheaper labour, nor from want of acquirable capital, art, or talent for such an object. The spirit of the woollen manufacture, by a kind of Pythagorean transmigration, now resides in France, Flanders and England. How has it escaped from Florence? Can any reason be assigned but the absence of a sufficient safeguard from external intrusion and subversion?

The two great principles of our navigation laws, that foreign commodities shall be brought from the place of their growth, and in British shipping manned by British seamen, seem to be the happiest thoughts of legislation operating upon and regulating human actions in their widest range. The effects are, at once, moral and political.

Did not the law force the use of native shipping, it is probable other nations would become the carriers, who, with habits formed to the sea, have cheaper means of navigating. The depression of navigation, besides the loss of maritime power, would be a privation of much knowledge to the country. It cannot be doubted that the necessity of visiting foreign countries, imposed by the navigation laws, gives rise to intelligence of every kind far more valuable than the expense of dearer conveyance. The masters and mariners enlarge their ideas, the ship-owners, merchants, manufacturers, and even cultivators, visit connections abroad, and return with instruction and a fostered love of enterprise: these qualities might, if

not thus raised and kept awake, long remain dormant by being left to the undirected course of progressive wealth.

Further, the advancement of society in affluence depends upon the habits of mankind: a torpor may exist for ages which nothing but legislative interference will shake off, and give a disposition for exploring and ascertaining the resources of distant climates, and of proving fortune in a variety of shapes. The frequent success of reflecting mariners is observable in the number who become capable provident ship-owners and valuable merchants, plain, practical, informed and useful. It is the step by which they improve their condition; and find, in proceeding to that kindred sphere, a natural, active, serviceable asylum as they get forward in the progress of years and affluence. It is not enough to consider the navigation laws as cheap or expensive methods of carriage, but as inducing habits and character. We are not to look back since the period of their institution and make up the pecuniary account of the expense we have incurred through them, and the apparent retardation of wealth so proceeding; but to calculate, if we can, the enterprise, knowledge, active virtue, and the consequent wealth to which they have given birth, by forcing, and afterwards alluring numbers of our countrymen, across so many seas, and to so many remote regions.

The favourite idea of our political economists is to banish regulations and to leave every species of industry to its own direction. They dwell on the course which wealth naturally takes in its free progress to its greatest height, through the various stages of society, from the hunter, through the pastoral, agricultural, manufacturing and commercial state. They hold every interruption to perfect freedom to be prejudicial to the speediest advance. They beg the question of a never-failing activity and love of accumulation; they count not on the disposition to indolence, the contentment with little, taught and actually practised by so many; the calls of religion; the love of pleasure; the passion for honour overcoming that for wealth: all which may arrest the advance of public opulence in its

free course through the early and middle stages. We would call into action more motives than one. Individual exertion, on our adoption of liberty of trade, may not be allowed free play; if home regulations do not cramp it, external arts and rivalry will. If we look into history, we find that changes have not been effected in society without some strong application of external restraint. The American savage would scarcely be reclaimed but by absolute compulsion. The Tartar cannot be brought to but by regulation or force, from ranging his wilds with his flocks and herds, to take a step towards civilization by applying to agriculture. The attachment to husbandry is often found to predominate over the confinement, uncertainty and artificial life of manufacturers and traders; and we have just observed how necessary may be the interference of the law to add to domestic industry the advantages of enlarged navigation.

If we endeavour to ascertain the result of freedom of trade in the commercial history of the world, it will, we believe, be found that its effects have not been to create any material branches of manufactures, nor yet to retain those previously possessed. It has, in fact, proved rather favourable to commerce than to manufactures. Italy, once the seat of numerous manufactures, which admits all foreign goods upon moderate duties, has nothing remaining but some small fabrics of silk goods. Switzerland receives foreign manufactures, and possesses a few herself; but these have probably arisen from the forced situation of the war—she had none previously. Hume remarks that 'agriculture may flourish even where manufactures and other arts are unknown and neglected. Switzerland is, at present, a remarkable instance; where we find at once the most skilful husbandmen and the most bungling tradesmen that are to be met with in Europe.*' Many small territories and islands are to be observed in different parts of the globe enjoying absolute liberty of commerce, *Hamburgh, Lisbon, Malta, Guernsey, St. Thomas, &c.* yet no manufactures have been found to mix amongst them; and though pos-

* Essay XI. On the Populousness of Ancient Nations.

sessed of certain portions of commerce, this may be ascribed more to favourable position, or vicinity to countries under restriction, than to any inherent virtue of an open commerce.

The doctrine of free trade has something very generous in its professions. It aims to remove all impediments and obstructions on the intercourse of nations; to withdraw much complication in government with regard to legal enactments, to customs, and custom house officers; to prevent the callous commission of vice in a profusion of oaths, of smuggling, and other encroachments on revenue; with endless jealousies and contentions of trade. In these feelings we participate; and could the dreams of the theorists be verified, we would willingly enter into the adoption of that entire liberty of trade which was to lead to the realization of them. But many of the evils enumerated are inseparable from the constitution of society; laws are possibly as necessary to the protection of national industry as they are to that of individual property; the safe-guards and resources of the revenue must be maintained. If wealth be an essential part of power and a security of independence, we must admit and establish the system best fitted for its preservation. Narrow, malignant or hostile feelings spring from the mind, and not from the existence of restrictions of self-defence or patriotic encouragement. If ill passions are bred by prohibitive regulations, their removal might lead to others of a nature not more benevolent—abjectness, sense of inferiority, and of inability to protect ourselves.

It is questionable whether the advantage of the world, considered universally, would be increased by perfect freedom of intercourse. Man thrives best by families, communities, and special national interests. It is no reason against these forms and divisions of society, that the spirit and partialities which bind them may be carried to excess, and that, good in themselves, they are liable to abuse. Every country uses its own industry for the encouragement of its own people, and follows such intercourse with its neighbours as will serve mutually without particular prejudice. Whatever at-

traction of benevolence and beauty may appear in the speculations of political economists, their unlimited adoption must be postponed until man becomes devoid of covetousness and rapacity; and, till then, they may be joined to the past rhapsodies of community of goods and universal non-resistance. We would submit to these economists, to confine their provident care, in the first instance, to something short of the entire generation of man. It is long since the poet sang—

'God loves from whole to parts: but human soul
Must rise from individual to the whole.
Friend, parent, neighbour, first it will embrace;
His country next; and next, all human race.'

It is a strong reason to doubt the practicability of these schemes, that statesmen have no where ventured upon them; not from ignorance, as has been petulantly pretended, but from extended knowledge. Neither in old nor new states, do legislatures find the Utopian ideas of these philosophers to be feasible; yet Adam Smith, the great advocate for the most unrestricted trade, is read in all countries and languages, and his doctrines have been moulded into all shapes, whether to inform youth or puzzle the learned. Reflection and practice seem to show that this valuable writer, in the zeal of his argument, carried too far his views of freedom of trade, as he assuredly did those of unlimited production and unrestrained parsimony.

It is the policy of general freedom of foreign, not of domestic commerce, that we hold in doubt. If in internal free intercourse one province gain and another suffer, the conjoint interest and wealth may be the same, or even increased. If Dorset and Hants suffer a privation of manufactures while Yorkshire and Lancashire abound, the common country may still be benefited by the concentration of manufacturing industry. But if Dorset and Hants were supplied from Normandy and the Netherlands, the policy with regard to this country might be justly questioned. Should it be urged that the improvement of the world might be promoted, the patriot (whose affections are local) must grieve, while the cosmopolite rejoices. 'The interests,' says Mr.

Malthus, 'of an independent state are especially different from those of a province, a point which has not been sufficiently attended to. The interest of each independent state is to accumulate the greatest quantity of wealth within its own limits.'²

Memoirs from 1754 to 1758, by James Earl Waldegrave, K. G. &c. Governor to the Prince of Wales, afterwards George III. London 1821. 4to. pp. 174.

A rivulet of text, flowing through a beautiful broad margin; very thick paper, and a frontispiece of the author's head, apparently of the same kind, are the obvious features of this publication. But however we may think *labor superabat opus*, we must pay the printer and publisher the tribute to say, that they have done their parts in getting out the work in the handsomest manner, for it is really a beautiful specimen of typography. And when noblemen who have manuscripts to sell, either on their own account or on account of their friends, manage the business in the style of Jew brokers, the unavoidable result is, that they must be left in oblivion, or that booksellers, paying an enormous price for them, must re-levy the same upon the public in the shape of expensive volumes. This very book, with hardly matter for a good pamphlet (we could cram some four of its pages into one of our columns), ought not to have exceeded a moderate octavo; but having been, as we have heard, hawked about among *the trade*, till it was bid up to thrice as much as it was worth, there was no option but to superadd Davison's skill and Murray's splendour, and charge the whole upon the rich class of buyers, and the unfortunate class of readers.

We mean by this no reflection upon the publisher; on the contrary, he has shown great liberality in procuring what he considered an interesting document; and we are only sorry, that through what we deem absolutely shameful chaffering, he was compelled to do so at such prodigious cost as to render it impracticable to gratify the public further, by giving the treat at a moderate rate.

In so far as the relation goes,

* Essay on Population, Book III. ch. 9.

there is a good deal of curious matter, biographical, historical, and political, in these memoirs; and though much of it has been anticipated by Bubb Doddington and Horace Walpole (the latter of whom had seen and made copious use of this manuscript), there is still a considerable balance of information, on which the opportunities of the writer stamp an increased value. The period to which that information refers is also one of so much party and constitutional consequence, that even the mightier events of our own times fail to obliterate its memory or efface its importance; and we peruse, with little diminished interest at the distance of three-fourths of a century, the record which James the 2nd, earl of Waldegrave, and the personal friend of George II. has preserved of the characters, intrigues, and squabbles of the courtiers, whose grand-children, if they figure at all, now figure on the courtly and political stage.

There is an address *To the Reader* prefixed to the work, which shows that the custodes of the papers were more competent to sell them well, than to write a good preface to them. It tells us* that the earl married in 1739, "the natural daughter of Sir Edward Walpole (afterwards Duchess of Gloucester), a lady of exquisite beauty, who, notwithstanding the disparity of age, had the sense to value the society, and the feeling to return the affections of her husband." As this declaration comes from the noble vouchers, it affords a truly strange sort of thesis for inferior folks to wonder at. His lordship was born in 1714-5, and must consequently have been at the extraordinary age of *forty-four*, when he wedded this exemplary matron, who is held up as a pattern to all countesses, because she had sense to value the society of so old a man, and feeling enough (oh, prodigious!) to return the affections of so antiquated a husband! Earnestly do we exhort all our quality readers of the fair sex to suffer this lesson to have its due weight with them: who knows, in that case, but that some of them may in turn be exhibited, seventy years hence, to an admiring posterity, as loyal ladies and dutiful

* Besides talking of two first years of the late reign!

wives. But a word to the lovely is as sufficient as a word to the wise; and we resume the lucubrations from which this surprising fact diverted us.

The private biography of lord Waldegrave is of little moment: he was a lord of the bedchamber in 1743, a teller of the exchequer in 1757, and a knight of the garter, when he died of small-pox, at the age of 48, in 1763; and the only situation of real consequence which he ever filled was that of Governor to our late venerated sovereign. This post he occupied for four years and was dismissed when the prince's first independent establishment was formed, having never, as it is stated, had any influence at Leicester house, or over the mind of his royal pupil.

"The circumstances attending his resignation, and his efforts to assist the king in negotiating various new administrations, at the commencement of the seven years' war, form the chief subjects of his narrative;" and as it is admitted by his biographers, that he was adverse to the purest maxims of our parliamentary government, it may even yet be a point of gratulation, that he never possessed more weight with our late patriotic monarch, nor ever had any higher duties to perform and write about.

The memoirs profess to give a short account of our political contentions, party quarrels, and of all events of any consequence from the beginning of the year 1754, to the middle of June, 1757. In fulfilling this task they set out with brief sketches of the characters of George II, of the princess of Wales, of the prince of Wales, afterwards George III, of the duke of Newcastle, Mr. Pitt, Mr. Fox, Lord Hardwick, Mr. Pelham, the duke of Cumberland, sir George Lyttleton, Lord Mansfield, sir Thomas Robinson, the earl of Bute (whom the author mortally disliked, and whom he plainly insinuates to have been the paramour of the princess), lord Anson, lord Holderness, the duke of Devonshire, and other prominent persons of that day. In some of these there is a good deal of spirit; others are but slight, and occasionally absurd; as for instance, when the duke of Newcastle is painted as a *lusus nature*. "In the midst of prosperity

and apparent happiness, the slightest disappointment, or any imaginary evil, will, in a moment, make him miserable: his mind can never be composed; his spirits are always agitated. Yet this constant ferment, which would wear out and destroy any other man, is perfectly agreeable to his constitution: he is at the very perfection of health, when his fever is at the greatest height."

We shall at least for the present, pass over such of these characters as belong most strictly to a former age, or are familiarly known in whatever was worth transmitting concerning them, beyond their own era; and select as specimens of the work, such passages as seem to us deserving of notice, for their novelty or curiosity. In both these respects, we can perhaps hardly begin better, than by affording our readers an idea of a cabinet council. In 1756, the prince and princess of Wales applied to the duke of Newcastle, to appoint lord Bute groom of the stole.

"The duke of Newcastle (says lord W.) either doubted their sincerity, or was not sufficiently frightened to give a satisfactory answer: besides, he knew that his endeavours to please Leicester house would not be agreeable at St. James's, and did not chuse to incur the displeasure of the king, who, though in his seventy-third year, was strong and in perfect health. Accordingly, he strictly confined himself to general professions of respect, and of his inclination to obey their commands; but avoiding an interview, and made no particular promises. However, his majesty was immediately acquainted with their royal highness's request, and as a new establishment, in some shape or other, was to be formed as soon as possible, he ordered a meeting of his principal servants, amongst whom, as the prince of Wales's governor, I had the honour of being admitted.

"It was unusual for the king himself to be present at such consultations; but he had already declared his opinion, by speaking of the princess's favourite, and of her partiality towards him, with the greatest contempt.

"The chancellor, with his usual gravity, declared, that for his own part, he had no particular objection to the earl of Bute's promotion;

neither would he give credit to some very extraordinary reports; but that many sober and respectable persons would think it indecent, for which reason he could never advise his majesty to give his consent. Lord Granville did not treat the affair quite so seriously; told three or four very good stories, which were nothing to the purpose, and concluded that the king was the only proper judge in the affairs of his own family. The duke of Newcastle gave his opinion that the king would never suffer Bute to be groom of the stole; but that something might be done for him in some other shape: that undoubtedly their royal highnesses must soon be convinced of the great impropriety of what they now desired; that it was a very nice affair, required the most mature consideration, and therefore he was against any immediate or final determination.

"When it was my turn to speak, I told them I was fully convinced that Leicester house would never be contented, unless their request was granted in its full extent. I was also persuaded that this request, however unreasonable, would be complied with, rather than cause an open rupture by an obstinate refusal. That it was better to do the thing soon, and with a good grace, than hereafter, when it would be thought an act of necessity, and no favour whatsoever. But that I had nothing to say as to the propriety or decency of the measure, whereof I did not think myself a competent judge.

"During the whole summer, there were several consultations on the same subject: frequent letters and messages past between Kew and Kensington, but instead of any agreement, the breach was daily growing wider: when at last, about the beginning of October, the ministers not daring to meet the parliament whilst Leicester house was dissatisfied, obtained the king's consent that the prince of Wales should not remove to Kensington, but should still continue with his mother; and that Bute should be groom of the stole, at the head of the new establishment.

"By this means was I delivered from the most painful servitude. Even in the best times, I had found little satisfaction in my most honourable employment: and my spi-

rits and patience were at last so totally exhausted, that I could have quitted his royal highness, and have given up all future hopes of court preferment, without the least regret or uneasiness."

The latter are not the only reflections of the same tone in which his lordship indulges; indeed his experience draws a melancholy picture of the wretchedness of a life spent at court.

"I have now (says he at the end) finished my relation of all the material transactions wherein I was immediately concerned; and though I can never forget my obligations to the kindest of masters, I have been too long behind the scenes, I have had too near a view of the machinery of a court, to envy any man either the power of a minister or the favour of princes.

"The constant anxiety, and frequent mortifications, which accompany ministerial employments, are tolerably well understood; but the world is totally unacquainted with the situation of those whom fortune has selected to be the constant attendants and companions of royalty, who partake of its domestic amusements, and social happiness.

"But I must not lift up the veil; and shall only add, that no man can have a clear conception how great personages pass their leisure hours, who has not been a prince's governor, or a king's favourite."

The mention of our late king, when a young man, namely, at the time lord W. resigned his governorship, cannot fail to be read with interest. His lordship had got the consent of his employer, George II., to retire; and he adds—

"I had not acquainted either the prince or princess of Wales with this transaction; who strongly suspected, that notwithstanding the ill usage I had received, I might still have some inclination to continue in his royal highness's service; and having often perceived that I would not understand the most intelligible hints, they now resolved to explain themselves in the clearest and most precise manner.

"Accordingly, one day after dinner, the prince of Wales began the conversation by desiring I would take nothing amiss; and then proceeded, with much hesitation and confusion, that he certainly should

be exceeding glad to employ me hereafter, but that just at present he had very particular reasons against my continuing in his service; that it would be very improper for him to give me a negative; hoped I would not lay him under such a difficulty; and that he should esteem it a real obligation, if my resignation could have the appearance of being entirely my own act. I answered, that far from taking any thing amiss, I returned his royal highness my humblest thanks for the very gracious manner in which he had expressed himself. That as to my quitting his service, I had often proposed it to the king, who, though much averse to it, had at last given his consent. That this had long been my object; for that several months ago, when his royal highness had thought proper to tell me that he expected to have the nomination of the person who was to be at the head of the new establishment, it being necessary there should be a man in such a place, whom he could thoroughly confide in; when he had added, that unless he was gratified in this particular, he should consider all those who were placed about him as his enemies; and when it was very apparent that I was not the person in whom his confidence was reposed, I should undoubtedly have resigned my employment the next morning, if I had not been apprehensive that it might have produced an immediate rupture; for I was determined, if there must be a quarrel between him and his grandfather, which I thought was probable, it should never be placed to my account. That I had persisted in doing all good offices, as long as they were practicable; that when it was no longer in my power to do any real good, I still had endeavoured to do as little harm as possible; and had made use of every opportunity to soften and alleviate whatever had been amiss; but at the same time the king having appointed me his royal highness's governor, I was accountable to his majesty, and it was my duty to give information, as to some particulars, when he required it: or supposing it had been my intention to deceive the king, even in that case, it would have been absurd to have denied those things which might be seen at every drawing-room, and

were the subject of conversation at every coffee-house.

"Those who had persuaded his royal highness to speak to me in the manner I have mentioned, had forgot to furnish him with a proper reply: possibly they did not expect that I should have presumed to return so uncourtly an answer; he was much embarrassed, said little, and went immediately to his mother, to give an account of what had passed.

"In about two days, I was sent for by her royal highness, who began by apologising for her son's behaviour: telling me, that I certainly must have misunderstood him on several occasions, or that he had said more than he really intended: that he had a great regard for me, did not like new faces, and was very desirous I should continue in his service: but that he had a very particular esteem for the earl of Bute, and had set his heart on making him groom of the stole: that being master of the horse was equally honourable; and if I would accept that employment every thing might be made easy, and the king and her son would both be satisfied. The prince, who was present, assented to every thing she said, but entered no further into the conversation. I returned their royal highnesses my humblest thanks; assured them that whether I quitted, or whether I remained his royal highness's servant, I should always be desirous of doing every thing which they should approve of, as far as was consistent with the superior duty I owed to the king; and that nothing could give me more real satisfaction, than to see perfect harmony and union in the royal family.

"Many compliments passed between us, without the least insincerity on either side: for we did not mean to deceive each other; but as we were soon to be divided for the rest of our lives, it seemed best to part with the appearance of good humour and civility. One of the compliments might, indeed, be somewhat equivocal: I told her royal highness that I had frequently taken the liberty of speaking to the king concerning lord Bute's promotion; but had never obtained a serious answer; for that as often as I touched on the subject, he immediately laughed in my face.

"After this friendly conference, which was about a month before the new establishment took place, I was treated with the greatest politeness; and when his majesty granted their request, he made choice of me to be the messenger of good news.

"As soon as the happy event was notified, his royal highness wrote a letter to the king, full of the strongest professions of duty, respect, and gratitude; wherewith his majesty was highly satisfied."

"I received his majesty's commands to send letters of notification to his royal highness's new servants: and when the long expected day arrived, I introduced them first at Kensington, and then returned to Savile house, where I presented them to the prince of Wales.

"The king could not be persuaded to look kindly on the groom of the stole: neither would he admit him into the closet, to receive the badge of his office; but gave it the duke of Grafton, who slipped the gold key into Bute's pocket; wished it could have been given in a more proper manner, but prudently advised him to take no notice.

"When the whole ceremony was ended, I went to take leave of his royal highness, who was uncommonly gracious; assuring me that he was thoroughly satisfied with every part of my behaviour, and that if others had acted in the same manner, he should have had no reason to complain. After these compliments, we had a very cheerful conversation; which being ended, I made my bow, and parted from him with as much indifference as was consistent with respect and decency."

The following whimsical anecdote is told of the opening of the session 1756, when the coalition of the Devonshire and Pitt ministry had been forced on the king. "All previous articles being now settled, the session of parliament opened with a speech from the throne, which, by its style and substance, appeared to be the work of a new speech-maker. The militia, which his majesty had always turned into ridicule, being strongly recommended; the late administration censured, and the uncourtly addresses of the preceding summer receiving the highest commendations.

"But though his majesty found

it necessary to talk this language to his parliament, in common conversation he made a frank declaration of his real sentiments: particularly being informed that an impudent printer was to be punished for having published a spurious speech, he answered, that he hoped the man's punishment would be of the mildest sort, because he had read both, and as far as he understood either of them, he liked the spurious speech better than his own."

We shall now take a few miscellaneous extracts; the annexed are the writer's characters of lord Anson and of the duke of Grafton.

"Lord Anson was also dismissed from the admiralty; a violent clamour having been raised against him, of which he was no more deserving than of the high reputation which preceded it.

"He was in reality a good sea officer, and had gained a considerable victory over the French in the last war: but nature had not endowed him with those extraordinary abilities which had been so liberally granted him by the whole nation. Now, on the contrary, he is to be allowed no merit whatsoever; the loss of Minorca is to be imputed to his misconduct, though many were equally, some infinitely more blamable; his slowness in business is to be called negligence; and his silence and reserve, which formerly passed for wisdom, takes the name of dullness, and of want of capacity.

"The death of the duke of Grafton, which happened during these transactions, was very prejudicial to his majesty's affairs."

"He was a few days older than the king; had been lord chamberlain during the whole reign, and had a particular manner of talking to his master on all subjects, and of touching upon the most tender points, which no other person ever ventured to imitate.

"He usually turned politics into ridicule; had never applied himself to business; and as to books, was totally illiterate: yet from long observation, and great natural sagacity, he became the ablest courtier of his time: had the most perfect knowledge both of king and ministers; and had more opportunities than any man of doing good or bad offices.

"He was a great teazer; had an established right of saying whatever

he pleased; and by a most intimate acquaintance with all the duke of Newcastle's evasions, had acquired such an ascendancy over him, that, had he negotiated in my stead, he probably would have succeeded where I failed."

He vilifies the late lord Chatham in no qualified terms, when advising the king to admit him to the ministry. It was, he says, "my very humble advice, that his majesty should give way to the necessity of the times; and if he would graciously overlook some past offences, and would gratify Pitt's vanity with a moderate share of that affability and courteousness, which he so liberally bestowed on so many of his servants, I was convinced he would find no intractable minister.

"That I was not ignorant that Pitt could be guilty of the worst of actions, whenever his ambition, his pride, or his resentment were to be gratified; but that he could also be sensible of good treatment; was bold and resolute, above doing things by halves; and if he once engaged, would go farther than any man in this country. Nor would his former violence against Hanover be any kind of obstacle, as he had given frequent proofs that he could change sides, whenever he found it necessary, and could deny his own words with an unembarrassed countenance."

"His majesty heard every thing I said with great patience; and answered with some cheerfulness, that according to my description, his situation was not much to be envied; but he could assure me it was infinitely more disagreeable than I represented it. That he believed few princes had been exposed to such treatment: that we were angry because he was partial to his electorate, though he desired nothing more to be done for Hanover than what we were bound in honour and justice to do for any country whatsoever, when it was exposed to danger entirely on our account.

"That we were indeed a very extraordinary people, continually talking of our constitution, laws, and liberty. That as to our constitution, he allowed it to be a good one, and defied any man to produce a single instance wherein he had exceeded his proper limits. That he never meant to screen or protect any servant who had done amiss; but still

he had a right to choose those who were to serve him, though, at present, so far from having an option, he was not even allowed a negative.

"That as to our laws, we passed near a hundred every session, which seemed made for no other purpose, but to afford us the pleasure of breaking them; and as to our zeal for liberty, it was in itself highly commendable; but our notions must be somewhat singular, when the chief of the nobility chose rather to be the dependents and followers of a duke of Newcastle, than to be the friends and counsellors of their sovereign."

In truth, the poor king was sorely beset, either in forming administrations or in administrations after they were formed. Here is a picture of one of them.

"If his majesty was dissatisfied with the parliamentary conduct of his ministers, their behaviour in the closet, though hitherto not very offensive, was, at least very disagreeable.

"The king who had a quick conception, and did not like to be kept long in suspense, expected that those who talked to him on business should use no superfluous arguments, but should come at once to the point: whilst Pitt and lord Temple, who were orators even in familiar conversation, endeavoured to guide his majesty's passions, and to convince his judgment according to the rules of rhetoric.

"Their mutual dissatisfaction was soon increased by the affair of admiral Bing, who had been condemned by a court martial, but at the same time had been strongly recommended to his majesty's mercy.

"The popular cry was violent against the admiral; but Pitt and lord Temple were desirous to save him; partly to please Leicester House, and partly because making him less criminal, would throw greater blame on the late administration.

"But, to avoid the odium of protecting a man who had been hanged in effigy in every town in England, they wanted the king to pardon him without their seeming to interfere; agreeable to the practice of most ministers, who take all merit to themselves when measures are approved of, and load their master with those acts of prerogative which are most unpopular.

"His majesty, however, not choosing to be their dupe, obliged them to pull off the mask; and the sentence against the admiral was not carried into execution, till, by their behaviour in parliament, they had given public proof of their partiality."

"His majesty became every day more averse to his new ministers. Pitt, indeed, had not frequent occasions of giving offence, having been confined by the gout the greater part of the winter; and when he made his appearance he behaved with proper respect, so that the king, though he did not like his long speeches, always treated him like a gentleman.

"But to lord Temple he had the strongest aversion, his lordship having a pert familiarity, which is not always agreeable to majesty: besides, in the affair of admiral Bing, he had used some insolent expressions which the king would never forgive.

"His majesty had now determined to dismiss them both as soon as possible, which opens a new scene wherein I must be guilty of much egotism, having been a principal agent in most of the subsequent transactions.

"After I had quitted the prince of Wales' service, in October '76, I remained quiet, troubling myself very little about politics, till the February following, when, by the death of lord Walpole, I came into possession of my place in the Exchequer, in less than two months after the reversionary patent had passed the great seal.

"On this occasion I thought it right to wait on the king both to return thanks, and to resign my employment in the stanneries; the place of teller alone, being, as I told his majesty, as much as any man was entitled to, and full as much as I either wanted or wished.

"He received me very graciously; told me how glad he was that he had granted the reversion at the right time, for that at present it would not have been in his power. He moreover insisted that I should continue warden of the stanneries some time longer, if it were only to exclude some im pertinent relation of the new minister.

"He then expressed his dislike to Pitt and lord Temple in very strong

terms; the substance of which was, that the secretary made him long speeches, which possibly might be very fine, but were greatly beyond his comprehension; and that his letters were affected, formal, and pedantic.

"That as to Temple, he was so disagreeable a fellow, there was no bearing him; that when he attempted to argue, he was pert and sometimes insolent; that when he meant to be civil, he was exceedingly troublesome, and that in the business of his office he was totally ignorant.

"He next questioned me concerning the duke of Newcastle; to which I answered, that though he was no longer a minister, it was very apparent a great majority in both houses in parliament still considered him as their chief, and were ready to act under his direction. That some of these might possibly be attached to him by a principle of gratitude; but the greater number were his followers, because they had reason to expect that he would soon be in a condition to reward their services. That as to his grace himself, he was quite doubtful what part he should take, being equally balanced between fear on one side, and love of power on the other.

"To this the king replied, 'I know he is apt to be afraid, therefore go and encourage him; tell him I do not look upon myself as king, whilst I am in the hands of these scoundrels: that I am determined to get rid of them at any rate; that I expect his assistance, and that he may depend on my favour and protection.'

"In obedience to these instructions, I had several conferences with the duke of Newcastle, the substance of which I reported to his majesty. That I had found his grace just as I expected; eager and impatient to come into power, but dreading the danger with which it must be accompanied.

"That he had made one objection wherein I entirely agreed with him; that it was not yet the proper season for the changes his majesty intended: that when the supply was granted, the inquiry at an end, and his late ministers honourably acquitted, which would probably happen in less than two months, Pitt and his followers might then be set at

defiance, without any considerable danger. "But that an immediate change of administration was a desperate measure, which would create much confusion, and might involve his majesty in new, and, perhaps, insuperable difficulties.

"To this the king made answer, neither the duke of Newcastle nor yourself are judges of what I feel; I can endure their insolence no longer."

We would prolong these extracts, but we wish to leave something in the book to read, even though it may have been read before in Walpole. Those who wish to contemplate a little more at large the picture of an old royal lion abandoned for the private interests of the inferior beasts, may find something of it here. There is also an appendix, consisting principally of extracts of letters from Mr. Fox, (afterwards lord Holland,) and corroborating the text.

LAW.

DIGEST OF THE PUBLIC ACTS PASSED AT THE LAST SESSION OF THE LEGISLATURE OF PENNSYLVANIA.

[Continued from page 351.]

Chap. 69.—An act for the improvement of the state.

SECT. 1. Whenever 2250 shares shall have been subscribed to the Union Canal Company, the governor is authorised to subscribe 250 shares for the state; and if the proceeds of the lottery, together with the tolls, shall not for the period of 25 years, yield a sum equal to 6 per cent annually, on all sums not exceeding \$450,000, which may be subscribed by new subscribers, the governor shall annually, for the term of 25 years, draw his warrants on the state treasurer for such deficiency, which shall be applied to the payment of an annual interest of 6 per cent. to such new subscribers, and the faith of the commonwealth is pledged for the purpose. *Provided*, that each subscriber shall be entitled to interest only from the time of the actual payment of each instalment; and so much of the former act as pledges the proceeds of the lottery to the payment of interest to the holders of shares in the former companies is suspended, until the canal be completed; and the managers are authorised to continue to receive money by lottery for the said term of 25 years. *Provided*,

that whenever the net proceeds of the tolls shall amount to 6 per cent. the privileges of the lottery shall cease, and it shall not be lawful to divide any sum arising from the lottery over and above 6 per cent.; and if any payment of interest shall be made by the state which shall amount to a share, the state shall receive certificates of stock accordingly; and if the canal shall not be completed so as to admit boats of 20 tons to pass, within ten years after interest shall first accrue, then the guarantee of interest to cease. And the auditor general, secretary of the commonwealth, and the state treasurer for the time being are appointed ex officio managers, who are to report to the legislature any abuse of trust on the part of the managers. *Provided* further, that the managers shall not be concerned in any contract nor receive any compensation. And no act of the managers shall be construed to affect the stock held by the state, which shall remain unencumbered forever.

SECT. 2. The governor to subscribe 1600 additional shares to the stock of the Harrisburgh and Pittsburgh turnpike companies, in the following proportions. To the Greensburgh and Pittsburgh company 180 shares, Stoystown and Greensburgh 300 shares, Bedford and Stoystown 280 shares, Chambersburgh and Bedford 550 shares, and to the Harrisburgh, Carlisle and Chambersburgh 290 shares.

SECT. 3. The governor authorised to subscribe to the Pittsburgh and New Alexandria company 240 shares, New Alexandria and Connemaugh 75, Huntingdon, Cambria and Indiana 700 shares; and, as soon as the companies are incorporated, to the Lewistown and Huntingdon 340, Millerstown and Lewistown 245.

SECT. 4. The governor to subscribe 400 shares, at \$50 each, to the Centre and Kishacoquillas company, as soon as incorporated.

SECT. 5. The sum of \$15,000 appropriated for improving the navigation of the Ohio from Pittsburgh to Wheeling, and commissioners appointed whose powers and duties are prescribed.

SECT. 6. The sum of \$25,280 appropriated for improving the navigation of the Susquehannah and its branches in certain proportions for

different parts of the river, and agents appointed for the several sections, who are to receive a compensation of \$1 50 a day. And \$5000, appropriated to improve the navigation of the rivers Connemaugh and Kiskeminitas, under the direction of commissioners. And \$1000 for the river Tioga and Cowanesque.

SECT. 7. The sum of \$10,000 appropriated for improving the navigation of the Delaware, in proportions for each section, under the direction of commissioners, whose duties are prescribed. And \$2000 appropriated to the river Lackawaxen.

SECT. 8. The sum of \$10,400 to be subscribed to the Susquehannah and Tioga turnpike.

SECT. 9. The sum of \$16,000 to be subscribed to the Milford and Owego turnpike.

SECT. 10. The sum of \$12,000 to be subscribed to the Philadelphia and Great Bend turnpike.

SECT. 11. The sum of \$10,000 to be subscribed to the Bridgewater and Wilkesbarre turnpike.

SECT. 12. 300 additional shares to be subscribed to the Springhouse, Northampton and Bethlehem turnpike.

SECT. 13. The sum of \$13,000 to be subscribed to the stocks of the company for erecting a bridge at Wilkesbarre.

SECT. 14. Stock to the amount of \$25,000 to be subscribed to the Ridge turnpike, to be paid over to the creditors who were contractors.

SECT. 15. 5000 shares, at \$50 each, to be subscribed to the Perkio-men and Reading Turnpike.

SECT. 16. 400 shares at \$50 each, to be subscribed to the Pittsburgh and Meadville turnpikes.

SECT. 17. The sum of \$4,500 to the improvement of Beaver river, and \$500 to the road at the lower falls of the Beaver.

SECT. 18. The sum of \$2,500 appropriated for the purpose of opening &c. a state road from Anderson's creek to Kittanning.

SECT. 19. The sum of \$8000 appropriated for the purpose of opening &c. a state road from Kittanning to the state line, in a direction to the village of Hamilton, N. York.

SECT. 20. 100 shares to be subscribed to the Gap and Newport turnpike.

SECT. 21. The sum of \$9000 appropriated for completing the road from the north line of the state in Warren County, to Meadville.

SECT. 22. 300 shares to be subscribed to the Philadelphia and Chadsford turnpike.

SECT. 23. \$12,000 of stock to be subscribed to the Washington and Pittsburgh turnpike.

SECT. 24. \$8000 of stock to be subscribed to the Bethany and Dengman's-choice turnpike.

SECT. 25. \$12,500 in stock to the Somerset and Bedford turnpike. \$12,500 in stock to the Mount Pleasant and Somerset turnpike. \$10,000 in stock to the Robbstown and Mount Pleasant turnpike. \$10,000 to the stock of the Washington and Williamsport turnpike.

SECT. 26. \$14,000 in stock to the company, for making a road from Reading to or near Hammelstown in Dauphin. Provided that so much as the company is entitled to draw forthwith, shall be applied to the payment of such debts, as those who were directors on the 1st of January last, are personally liable for.

SECT. 27. \$35,000 in stock to the Centre turnpike, *provided*, that not less than \$30,000 shall be applied towards paying a judgment of the bank of Pennsylvania, against D. D. Keim and others.

SECT. 28. \$8000 to the capital stock of the company, for building a bridge over the Susquehannah at Nescopeck.

SECT. 29. \$10,000 for improving the state road through Greene county towards Grave creek, and \$15,000 for a state road through Somerset and Fayette counties towards Grave creek.

SECT. 30. \$1000 to the stock of the Clifford and Wilkesbarre turnpike. Provided that the sum be expended on that part of the road between Richardson's old tavern, and the Milford and Owego turnpike.

SECT. 31. \$5000 to the stock of the Belmont and Oghquaga turnpike.

SECT. 32. 150 shares of the Belmont and Easton turnpike to be subscribed at \$50 a share.

SECT. 33. \$3000 appropriated for improving the state road in Lycoming and Tioga counties.

SECT. 34. \$3000 for improving the navigation of the Youghiogeny river, from Connesville to its mouth.

SECT. 35. \$3500 for improving a road from Allentown towards Philadelphia.

(To be continued.)

ORIGINAL CORRESPONDENCE.

EXTRACT OF A LETTER FROM EUROPE.

— April 8, 1821.

During our residence of some months in Paris we were so fortunate as to become acquainted with your ambassador, Mr. Gallatin, a very sensible man, whose strength of character is equal to his strength of intellect, and who, by straight forward sincerity, is full a match for Parisian diplomacy. At their table we had the pleasure of meeting with Mr. Washington Irvine, the author of the Sketch Book. We had not read his book at the time we saw him, a circumstance which I very much regret. I consider it as a work of the greatest genius in that style that America has ever produced, and it is a proof that his talents are fully able to cope with those of the most cultivated in Europe. I know of few pens or pencils, Walter Scott's excepted, that can be compared with Geoffrey Crayon's. Some of the descriptions bear such a resemblance to Walter Scott's manner, that I am convinced they might be passed for his upon the best judges. Nor is this servile imitation, but rather that resemblance which is often found between minds of the same rank of power who are contemporaries.

You Americans read Walter Scott's works as quickly and as eagerly as they are read in Europe—therefore I presume that you have already discussed all the characters in Kenilworth, and that you have admired Queen Elizabeth and all her court, Sir Walter Raleigh especially. In point of entertainment and strength of painting of character, this work is equal to any that Scott ever published, Waverly excepted, and it shows his amazing fertility of resource, in being able to do without his treasures of national Scotch characters. He is said to have made an hundred thousand pounds by his writings—more than ever before was realized by prose

writer or by poet. Our king has paid a tribute to his fame by making him a baronet; but no title can ennoble the name of Walter Scott. Who thinks of the Sir, before Isaac Newton—it becomes all one sign to represent the idea of the individual one admires. You have in America great advantages for the originality of rising genius, as is evident in the Sketch Book, where new views of the manners of an immense continent are opened.

Lord Waldegrave's and Horace Walpole's Memoirs from 1751 to 1760, are just appearing, and promise well, especially Lord Waldegrave's, which are edited by Lord Holland. Schiller's history of the thirty years' war, I hear is excellent, in the original German; but this is only hearsay. If you care about the affairs of France, the pamphlet of M. Guyot gives a good view of them, and, if you are not tired of M. Necker, you will like his Memoirs, just published by his grandson, M. de Staël—his writings have the only charm which his mother's wanted—simplicity. We were at Coppet for some days, and there and at Paris saw a great deal of M. de Staël and of Madame de Staël's daughter, the Duchesse de Broglie; they are both very amiable, especially in their respect for their mother's memory, and in their care of the little Rocca, who is left to their charge; in this the Duc de Broglie joins, in which he has even superior merit. He is one of the best informed men in France, on all subjects of political economy, and has the most sincere desire to serve his country. As to the rest, I think the French are scarcely more advanced than they were at the beginning of the revolution. Your Franklin justly observe I, that the tree of liberty required to be planted in fresh ground.

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